

3-D Model of the Lithosphere-Asthenosphere Boundary for a Propagating Rift

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A first-order approximation of the lithosphere-aesthenosphere boundary of a propagating rift model is shown in Figures 1 and 2. (Figure 1 is a reduced version of the cover figure. All bracketed letters in the text correspond to letters in Figure 2.) The propagating rift model explains tectonic patterns of some oceanic regions that have puzzled earth scientists for some time. According to this model, oceanic spreading centers can propagate through older crust, transferring portions of crust from one plate to another.

The two images in Figure 1 form a 3-D stereo pair of the lithosphere-aesthenosphere boundary at a propagating rift. To view the 3-D model use a stereoscope (on Figure 1); alternatively, start at Figure 1 or the cover figure and let your eyes soft-focus until a 3-D image appears between the two printed images (believe us, it works). The model is based on the Galapagos propagator at 95.5°W, viewed from above and toward the southeast. The 'V'-shaped wedge of lithosphere between the pseudofaults is formed by extension of the eastern rift toward the viewer. As this rift propagates, spreading stops on the dying western rift, leaving a failed rift. Only two plates are present in the model, and depth to the aesthenosphere depends only on age.

The stippled region (A) represents a cross section of the lithosphere and shows how the lithosphere thickens away from the rift. Depth to the ocean bottom (top boundary of A) is calculated by using the equations and assumptions of *Slater and Francheteau [1970]* for a spreading center that spreads at a rate of 26 mm/yr. Depth is 2.1 km at the spreading center and increases to 3.1 km on the far right. Lithospheric thickness is calculated by using the equation of *Yoshi et al. [1976]*

$$L = 7.49(T)^{0.2}$$

where L is the thickness of the lithosphere in kilometers, and T is the age in millions of years. Depth to the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary (bottom edge of A) is the sum of the ocean depth and lithospheric thickness. Thermal and isostatic adjustments that occur at the tip of the propagator and other boundaries have not been incorporated into the model and would tend to smooth the discontinuities and sharp boundaries. Depth is assumed to be a function of age only.

General configuration of the model corresponds to the 0.5–5 MV Galapagos propagator [Hey *et al.*, 1980], except that the initial rifts of this model are offset by a 20-km-long transform fault (B2–Fracture zones (B1, B2–B3) associated with this transform fault terminate at the ends of the pseudofaults (C1, C2). The southern fracture zone (B2–B3) is composed of two sections: the fracture zone that existed when the transform was active (B3) and the original transform fault that was locked in place when rift propagation commenced (B2). As Hey [1977] pointed out, and as can be seen clearly here, the sense of vertical offset changes along the southern fracture zone instead of monotonically decreasing, as it does along a normal fracture zone. Intersections of the pseudofaults with the fracture zones mark the locations of lithosphere formed at the initiation of propagation. Propagation began at the initial transform fault and has extended the length of the eastern rift (D1) at a constant rate along a different azimuth. Extension of the propagating rift or propagator (D2) proceeds at the expense of the dying rift (D3). As spreading is trans-

ferred to the propagator, a portion of the dying rift is frozen into the southern plate and becomes a failed rift (D4). Orientation of the failed rift is controlled by the spreading rate and the extensional growth rate of the propagator. There are only two rigid plates in this model at all times.

Pseudofaults (C1, C2) stand out as large depth discontinuities in the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary; these discontinuities reflect differences in age between new lithosphere formed at the propagator tip and old lithosphere through which the propagator extends. Vertical offset along the pseudofaults decreases away from the propagator tip because the difference in thickness decreases as both sections of the lithosphere age and because the propagator is extending through progressively older and thicker lithosphere. Note that no horizontal displacement occurs along the pseudofault boundaries, although vertical motion should result from differential aging across the boundaries.

The transform fault (E), which connects the propagator tip to the intersection of the dying and failed rifts, differs in important ways from the classical transform fault of a normal rift system. Material on both sides of the transform fault is formed by the same rift; consequently, there is no sharp age or thermal difference across the boundary. Also, the location of the transform fault is not fixed but moves in the same direction and at the same rate as rift propagation. Its length changes if the propagator is growing at a different azimuth from the dying rift. Note that what would be fracture zones (inactive portions of the transform) in a normal transform fault system are manifested by the northern pseudofault (C1) and by the zone between the southern pseudofault (C2) and the failed rift (D4). All interplate horizontal displacement occurs in the region between the propagator tip and the dying rift and is recognized by the change in azimuth between the dying and failed rifts. *Hey et al.* [1980] suggest that the transform fault of a propagating rift may be a zone of shear localization rather than a localized fault boundary.

The existence of propagators in several areas has been postulated [Hey, 1977; Hey *et al.*, 1980; Hey and Wilson, 1980; Delaney *et al.*, 1981]. Propagators, and the causes and consequences of propagation, will be one of the most interesting topics in plate tectonics to be studied during this decade.

Acknowledgments

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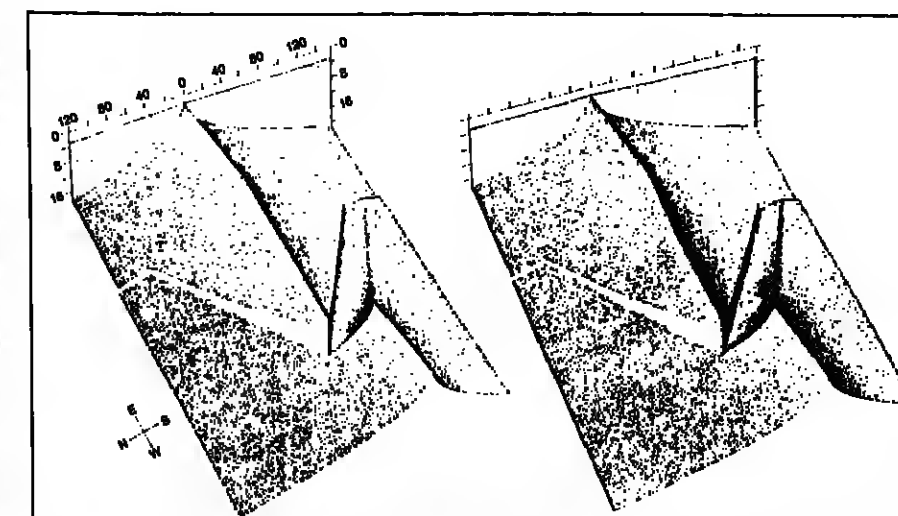


Fig. 1. A 3-D stereo pair of the lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary at a propagating rift. See text for details.

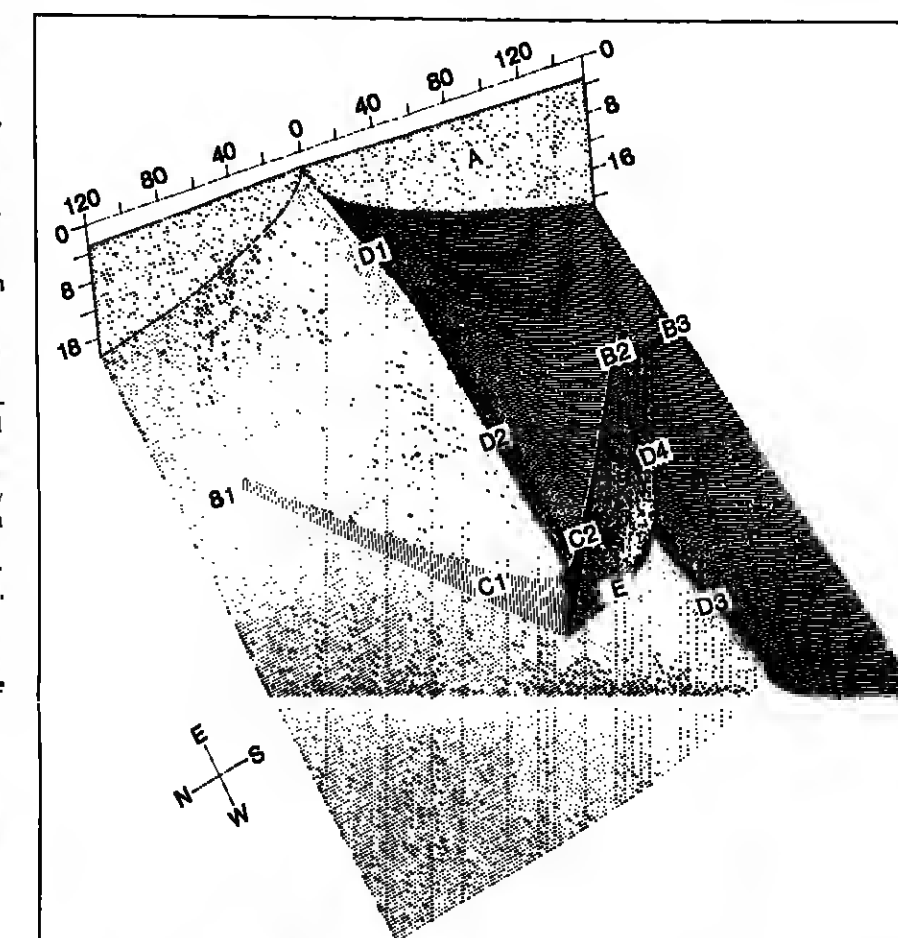


Fig. 2. (A) Lithosphere—The upper boundary is the depth below sea level (2.1–3.1 km), and the lower boundary is the lithosphere-aesthenosphere boundary (2.1–21 km). (B) Fracture Zones—B1 and B3 are fracture zones that form from an original transform fault, B2, that is locked in place when rift propagation commences. (C) Pseudofaults—Pseudofaults mark the boundary of lithosphere formed by the propagator. The large vertical offset is a consequence of the large age difference across the boundary. (D) Rifts—D1 is an original rift from which the propagating rift or propagator, D2, arises. D3 is the dying rift which becomes inactive and forms the failed rift, D4, as the propagator usurps the spreading. (E) Transform Fault—The transform fault lies between the propagator tip and the end of the dying rift. It is significantly different from a classical transform fault in that material on both sides of the fault is formed by the same rift, there is no significant age difference across the fault, no fracture zones develop, and the fault must be repositioned at the same rate as the extensional growth rate of the propagator. Scale in kilometers.

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News

New NAE Head

Robert M. White, president of the University Corporation for Atmospheric Research (UCAR) and an AGU Fellow, has been elected president of the National Academy of Engineering (NAE). White's 4-year term begins July 1. He succeeds Courtland D. Perkins, who has been NAE president since 1976.

As NAE president, White will serve as vice chairman of the National Research Council (NRC). Frank Press, president of the National Academy of Sciences and former AGU president, is NRC chairman.

A search committee has been established at UCAR to find White's successor. For additional information, write to Thomas Donahue, Chairman, Search Committee, University Corporation for Atmospheric Research, P.O. Box 3000, Boulder, CO 80507. May 6 is the deadline for applications. UCAR, a consortium of 50 universities with doctoral programs in the atmospheric sciences or closely related fields, manages the National Center for Atmospheric Research under contract with the National Science Foundation. UCAR also carries on other activities to promote atmospheric science in the public interest.

New Weather Index

Scientists at the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and the University of Delaware have refined the wind-chill factor, a common measurement of weather discomfort, into a new misery register called the weather stress index. In addition to the mix of temperature and wind speed data used to calculate wind chill, the recipe for the index adds two new ingredients—humidity and a dash of benchmark station—to estimate human reaction to weather conditions. NOAA says that the weather stress index estimates human reaction to weather conditions and that the reaction depends on variations from the 'normal' conditions in the locality involved.

Discomfort criteria for New Orleans, La., and Bismarck, N.D., for example, differ dramatically. According to NOAA, when it's the middle of winter and it's -10°C with a relative humidity of 80% and 24 km/h winds, persons in New Orleans would be highly stressed while those in Bismarck wouldn't bat an eye. NOAA plans to generate daily, weekly, and monthly weather-stress maps of the United States.

TV Special on Geophysics

Earthquake prediction, earthquake preparation in California and Japan, the theory of plate tectonics, and the causes and effects of earthquakes and volcanoes will be the subjects of a National Geographic television special scheduled to air on public television on April 6.

Among the locations visited by 'Born of Fire' are Iceland, where magma oozes to the surface on the remote island of Heimaey, illustrating the moving crustal plates; the Republic of Djibouti in east Africa, where some scientists believe a new ocean will form as three crustal plates spread apart; and the island of Santorini in the Aegean Sea, where a series of earthquakes and volcanic eruptions some 3,500 years ago destroyed two-thirds of the island and obliterated the city of Akrotiri.

The special, featuring geologist Robert Ballard of the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, is produced by the National Geographic Society and WQED of Pittsburgh with a continuing grant from Gulf Oil Corporation. Check local television listings for time and station.

Geophysical Events

This is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 8(2), February 28, 1983, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution. The complete Long Valley, Colima, and Langila reports are included; the earthquake report is an excerpt. The complete bulletin is available in the microfiche edition of *Eos* as a microfiche supplement or as a paper reprint. Subscriptions to *SEAN Bulletin* are also available. For the microfiche, order document E83-003 at \$2.50 from AGU Fulfillment, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, DC 20009. For reprints, order *SEAN Bulletin* (give volume and issue numbers and issue date) through AGU Separates: \$5.50 for one copy of each issue number for those who do not have a deposit account; \$2 for those who do; additional copies of each issue number are \$1.00. For a subscription, order *SEAN Bulletin* from AGU Fulfillment. The price is \$18.00 for 12 monthly issues mailed to a United States address; \$28.00 (U.S.) if mailed elsewhere. Order must be prepaid.

Volcanic Events

Kilauea (Hawaii): Renewed fountaining and lava flow production on E Rift.
Mt. St. Helens (Washington): Spine added to February lobe, then extrusion stops; seismicity suggests renewed extrusion by late March.
Long Valley (California): Seismicity remains elevated, but no new swarms.
El Chichón (México): Little change to N hemisphere cloud; tiny aerosols recondense above 30 km; unusual sunsets and sunsets.
Colima (México): Lava extrusion ended June 1982 but plume emission continues.
Ol Doinyo Lengai (Tanzania): Tephra emission continues; lava flow.
Langila (New Britain): Explosions build to 6-day strombolian-volcanic event.
Manam (Bismarck Sea): Rumbles, night glow, increased vapor emissions.
Rusapehu (New Zealand): Possibly pre-eruptive changes continue.
Sakurajima (Japan): Increased explosive activity; rain-caused debris flows.

Long Valley Caldera, California, USA (37.68°N, 118.86°W). As of early March, an average of 10-30 events per day of magnitude ≥ 1 continued to occur in the southern part of the caldera in the epicentral area of the major January earthquake swarm (see *SEAN Bulletin* 7 (19) and 8 (1)). For several months prior to the January swarm the background level of seismicity in the caldera had averaged 8-10 earthquakes of magnitude ≥ 1 per day. Few larger events were recorded in February, but 5 shocks with magnitudes > 3 occurred February 18-19 and a magnitude 4 earthquake was recorded February 24 in the January epicentral region. Heavy snows have severely limited deformation monitoring but available data suggest that no major changes have occurred since January.

Information Contact: David Hill, Mail Stop 77, U.S. Geological Survey, 345 Middlefield Rd., Menlo Park, CA 94025 USA.
Colima Volcano, SW Mexico (19.42°N, 103.72°W). A French team reached the northern rim of the summit cone in early December. Storm damage to trails prevented them from reaching the southern side of the cone, so they were unable to see the southern flank lava flow produced by the eruption that began in December 1981 (see *SEAN Bulletin* 7 (1-3)). Only fumarolic activity was observed in the western part of the crater and on the northern flank. Gas of essentially atmospheric composition was emitted at 500°C from the northeastern part of the cone and from a vent that had recently extruded a lava flow. Rockfalls occurred several times per day from the front of this flow and it may still have been advancing very slowly.

James Lühr and others visited Colima in mid-January and again in early February. The southern flank lava flow appeared to have advanced very little since last observed by Lühr in March 1982. Residents of the area reported that incandescence had ended in June 1982. Plume emission continued in early 1983 at about the same intensity as a year earlier, but there were no episodic increases in intensity of plume emission as there had been in early 1982.

Information Contact: Jean Louis Chémoulin, Laboratoire de Géologie, Ecole Normale Supérieure, 46 Rue d'Ulm, 75230 Paris Cedex 05, France; James Lühr, Department of Geology and Geophysics, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720 USA.

Langila Volcano, New Britain Island, Papua New Guinea (5.33°S, 148.42°E). This report is from P. Lowenstein.

The increased volcanic activity of crater 2 in January (see last month's *SEAN Bulletin*) culminated in a rise of the magma column, with an eruptive phase maximum February 11-18. The February 3-11 buildup of the eruption consisted of approximately hour-long periods of loud, rumbling noises, with deep explosion sounds at 5-30 s intervals. Several times per day at irregular intervals individual explosions produced black, ash-laden columns that rose as much as 3-4 km before being dissipated by the northwesterly winds. Night glow, observed February 3, became more intense during this period. Low strombolian fountaining was visible February 3-5 and 9.

"During the 8 days of maximum activity, crater 2 simultaneously displayed continuous strombolian fountaining to 100 m and intermittent powerful volcanic explosions. Most of the volcanic explosions were laterally directed, while the continuous moderate vapour emissions and the strombolian fountaining were central and vertical, leading to the conclusion that crater 2 may contain two more or less independent vents."

"Seismic activity consisted of a sub-continuous background of harmonic tremor and strombolian B-type earthquakes. Each individual volcanic eruption produced large-amplitude, low-period explosion events. The most powerful of these

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explosions occurred February 12-13 and 15 at the rate of 2-5 per hour.
"Activity diminished rapidly on February 16 and stopped completely on February 17, but harmonic tremor continued. Weak glow was visible on February 19, and volcanic explosions occurred on February 19 and 23.

"During the eruption, crater 3 (a separate remnant cone 300 m west of crater 2) released only weak, white vapors. However, the volume of emission increased to moderate or large during the first 10 days of February, the time of the activity buildup at crater 2."

Information Contact: P. Lowenstein, Senior Government Volcanologist, Rabaul Volcano Observatory, P.O. Box 386, Rabaul, Papua New Guinea.

Meteoritic Events

Meteorite fall: Tennessee, USA, January 28; additional fireball observation.
Fireballs: North Atlantic; Australia (2); Iraq of Bengal; Egypt; England; Germany; Italy; Oregon and Washington, USA.

Earthquakes

Date	Time (UT)	Magnitude	Latitude
Feb. 13	0140	6.2 M_s	39.0°N
Feb. 13	0636	5.6 M_s	13.84°N
Feb. 14	0320	6.3 M_s	51.00°N
Feb. 25	1822	4.8 M_s	42.10°N
Feb. 27	1214	5.8 M_s	35.00°N

Longitude	Depth of Focus	Region
75.10°E	shallow	Southwestern China
144.98°E	169 km	Mariana Islands
159.19°W	shallow	Alaska peninsula
21.51°E	10 km	Yugoslavia
135.85°E	83 km	Japan

*Berkeley measurement 6.5 M_s

Information Contact: National Earthquake Information Service, U.S. Geological Survey, Stop 987, Denver Federal Center, Box 25046, Denver, CO 80225 USA.

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U.S. scientists planning to attend the 18th General Assembly of IUGG, Hamburg, West Germany, August 15-27, 1983, should notify A. F. Spilhaus, Jr., Secretary, U.S. National Committee, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009, and indicate in which IUGG association they propose to participate so that they can be officially designated as delegates from the United States.

Books

Advanced Techniques for Clay Mineral Analysis

Dev. in Sedimentol. 34, J. J. Fripiat (Ed.), Elsevier, New York, vi + 235 pp., 1982, \$46.50

Reviewed by Herman E. Roberson

Advanced Techniques for Clay Mineral Analysis is a collection of review articles dealing with nine analytical techniques: thermogravimetric analysis, high resolution electron-microscopy studies, neutron scattering techniques, nuclear magnetic resonance, Mossbauer spectroscopy, electron spin resonance, ultraviolet and visible light spectroscopy, far infrared spectroscopy, and electron spectroscopy for chemical analysis (ESCA).

Each chapter includes some discussion of theory as it relates to a particular technique, but the main emphasis according to J. J. Fripiat, the editor, was to be directed toward summarizing recent developments of clay research applications. In fact there is an unevenness in this regard. Some authors (e.g., P. L. Hall on neutron scattering and J. P. Eberhart on high resolution electron-microscopy) have devoted a significant proportion of their articles to theoretical discussion, while other authors (T. J. Pinnavaia on electron spin resonance studies of clay minerals and R. D. Mackenzie on thermogravimetric methods) have no general discussion of theory.

Three areas of study reviewed have been extensively developed by chemists but have only recently received attention from clay researchers: Mossbauer spectroscopy, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), and electron spin resonance. Applications of Mossbauer spectroscopy in the study of clays are fairly extensive; as a result the author, B. A. Goodman, makes no attempt to present a comprehensive review. However, these topics which were selected (e.g., identification of oxidation states of iron and identification of iron-containing mineral phases at levels below their limits of detection by other more conventional techniques) will be of interest to many clay researchers. The review of NMR applied to water-clay systems is comprehensive; the clay

researcher attempting to get an overview in this research area may want to start here. Electron spin resonance applications of the orientation of hydrated metal ions on basal clay surfaces, mobility of interlayer ions, and a number of interlayer metal complexes.

In his review of high resolution electron-microscopy application, J. P. Eberhart points out that this technique has already been applied with success in the study of several layer silicates (primarily well-crystallized micas). The technique holds promise for the clay mineralogist who is willing to devote himself to gaining a thorough knowledge of the imaging process required for analysis.

ESCA, a relatively new technique, is one that holds great promise for clay research. The technique, because of its high selectivity for the surface of the material being analyzed, has a range of applications that includes adsorption studies as well as studies related to the growth and alteration of clay minerals.

In general the articles are well written and achieve the primary goal: to acquaint the reader with some important analytical techniques which have been recently applied in studies of clay minerals. However, it should be pointed out that excellent review articles on many of the topics covered in this book have been published recently. This, along with the price (\$46.50), may curtail sales.

Herman E. Roberson is with the Department of Geological Sciences, State University of New York at Binghamton, Binghamton, New York.

Climatic Geomorphology

J. Büdel (Engl. Transl.), Princeton University Press, Princeton, N.J., xix + 443 pp., 1982, hardbound, \$50; cloth, \$18.50.

Reviewed by A. T. Grove

Although this book opens with a map of the world showing the continents divided into 10 major climatic regions, this is not simply a text book on geomorphology organized climatically. Rather it is a dissertation which at-

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